15mg/kg/day used primarily in biliary cirrhosis trials were extremely well tolerated and without toxicity. (Pourpon et al., A multicenter, controlled trial of ursodiol for the treatment of primary biliary cirrhosis. 324 New Engl. J. Med. 1548 (1991)). While the precise mechanism of URSO action is unknown, beneficial effects of URSO therapy are related to the enrichment of the hepatic bile acid pool with this hydrophilic bile acid. It has thus been hypothesized that bile acids more hydrophilic than URSO will have even greater beneficial effects than URSO. For example, tauroursodeoxycholate (TURSO) the taurine conjugate of URSO. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) can inhibit the neoplastic transformation of colorectal epithelium. The likely mechanism to explain this chemopreventive effect is inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis. NSAIDs inhibit cyclooxygenase, the enzyme that converts arachidonic acid to prostaglandins and thromboxanes. However, the potential chemopreventive benefits of NSAIDs such as sulindac or mesalamine are tempered by their well known toxicities and moderately high risk of intolerance. Abdominal pain, dispepsia, nausea, diarrhea, constipation, rash, dizziness, or headaches have been reported in up to 9% of patients. The elderly appear to be particularly vulnerable as the incidence of NSAID-induced gastroduodenal ulcer disease, including gastrointestinal bleeding, is higher in those over the age of 60; this is also the age group most likely to develop colon cancer, and therefore most likely to benefit from chemoprevention. The gastrointestinal side effects associated with NSAID use result from the inhibition of cyclooxygenase-1, an enzyme responsible

for maintenance of the gastric mucosa. Therefore, the use of COX-2 inhibitors in combination with URSO is contemplated to treat or prevent cancer, including but not limited to colon cancer or colonic polyps; it is contemplated that this treatment will result in lower gastrointestinal side effects than the combination of standard NSAIDs and URSO.

An additional class of antineoplastic agents that may be used in the present invention include nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs (NSAIDs). NSAIDs have been found to prevent the production of prostaglandins by inhibiting enzymes in the human arachidonic acid/prostaglandin pathway, including the enzyme cyclooxygenase (COX). However, for the purposes of the present invention the definition of an NSAID does not include the "cyclooxygenase-2 inhibitors" described herein. Thus the phrase "nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drug" or "NSAID" includes agents that specifically inhibit cyclooxygenase-1, without significant inhibition of cyclooxygenase-2; or inhibit cyclooxygenase-1 and cyclooxygenase-2 at substantially the same potency; or inhibit neither cyclooxygenase-1 or cyclooxygenase-2. The potency and selectivity for the enzyme cyclooxygenase-1 and cyclooxygenase-2 can be determined by assays well known in the art, see for example, Cromlish and Kennedy, Biochemical Pharmacology, Vol. 52, pp 1777-1785, 1996.

Examples of NSAIDs that can be used in the combinations of the present invention include sulindac, indomethacin, naproxen, diclofenac, tolectin, fenoprofen, phenylbutazone, piroxicam, ibuprofen, ketophen, mefenamic acid, tolmetin, flufenamic acid,

nimesulide, niflumic acid, piroxicam, tenoxicam, phenylbutazone, fenclofenac, flurbiprofen, ketoprofen, fenoprofen, acetaminophen, salicylate and aspirin.

The term "clinical tumor" includes neoplasms that are identifiable through clinical screening or diagnostic procedures including, but not limited to, palpation, biopsy, cell proliferation index, endoscopy, mammagraphy, digital mammography, ultrasonography, computed tomagraphy (CT), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), positron emmission tomaagraphy (PET), radiography, radionuclide evaluation, CT- or MRI-guided aspiration cytology, and imaging-guided needle biopsy, among others. Such diagnostic techniques are well known to those skilled in the art and are described in Cancer Medicine 4th Edition, Volume One. J.F. Holland, R.C. Bast, D.L. Morton, E. Frei III, D.W. Kufe, and R.R. Weichselbaum (Editors). Williams & Wilkins, Baltimore (1997).

The term "tumor marker" or "tumor biomarker" encompasses a wide variety of molecules with divergent characteristics that appear in body fluids or tissue in association with a clinical tumor and also includes tumor-associated chromosomal changes. Tumor markers fall primarily into three categories: molecular or cellular markers, chromosomal markers, and serological or serum markers. Molecular and chromosomal markers complement standard parameters used to describe a tumor (i.e. histopathology, grade, tumor size) and are used primarily in refining disease diagnosis and prognosis after clinical manifestation. Serum markers can often be measured many months before clinical tumor detection